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ABSTRACT

This manual provides planners of professional development programs for practicing and aspiring school administrators with basic background information related to mentoring. Fundamental concepts that underlie mentoring in education are examined as well as many of the most frequently discussed issues concerning the actual implementation of mentor programs. Mentoring is a powerful tool to be utilized as a way to assist beginning administrators in surviving their first years in office. Ways to construct formal mentoring relationships are described. This manual is divided into five sections: (1) what mentoring is; (2) what is needed to begin a mentoring program; (3) how a mentoring program gets started; (4) a model for training mentors; and (5) some concluding thoughts. (49 references) (SI)

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ADMINISTRATIVE MENTORING: A TRAINING MANUAL

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ADMINISTRATIVE MENTORING: A TRAINING MANUAL

Introduction

The purpose of this Manual is to provide planners of professional development programs for practicing and aspiring school administrators with basic background information related to mentoring. It is assumed that this concept may be helpful to those administrators and would be administrators who seek professional support as they go about the business of leading schools. In the pages that follow, information will be provided about the fundamental concepts that underlie mentoring in education, and many of the most frequently-discussed issues concerning the actual implementation of mentor programs will be reviewed. We hope that the information presented here will be useful in assisting you to go through the basic stages that are necessary in establishing a mentoring program in your school or district, whether it is designed merely to comply with some type of mandated certification program such as the required entry year support activities for Ohio school administrators, or as part of an ongoing effort to promote the professional development of all administrators in your school district.

It is important to note that the use of mentoring for administrative professional development is truly in an embryonic stage at this point. It is something that many people are talking about. However, only a few examples of active administrative mentoring programs are now found across

the nation. As a result, users of this Manual will not find many precise prescriptions of "perfect" mentoring programs. Instead, it will be the responsibility of those who review the material we have included here to transform the fundamental ideas presented here into action plans that fit local conditions and needs.

We make an important assumption throughout this Manual, and that is, of course, that mentoring is a powerful tool to be utilized as a way to assist beginning administrators survive their first years in office, and to get over the first difficult hurdles that they will face on the job. But we believe that mentoring can be much more than simply a "safety net" that enables people simply to "get by". It may also be viewed as an important form of ongoing professional development that benefits both the mentor and the person being mentored (or "protegee," as we will use the term consistently throughout this Manual). Mentoring may be a particularly potent activity during the first years of a new career. However, it may also be viewed as something that can happen throughout a professional lifetime.

Another issue that we raise here is that, in some ways, what we will be discussing in this Manual is not classical mentoring in the sense that such a practice is typically a naturally evolved sort of relationship between two people in an organization. In most cases, true mentors take an interest in a newcomer, and a helping relationship emerges. It is not created. What we will describe here for the most part is the way in which formal mentoring relationships can be "constructed". We hope that, while this is an important difference between the ways in which some mentoring relationships might be developed, there are still enough obvious benefits

found in mentoring that allows even contrived relationships to be helpful to beginning administrators. We suspect, too, that many of the "constructed mentorships" that are created will likely become very natural, shared, and helping relationships over time.

I. WHAT IS MENTORING?

In this section, a review of recent literature describing mentoring is provided. First, several basic definitions are considered. Next, the use of mentoring relationships outside the field of education is briefly described. Third, some of the ways in which the concept of mentoring has been applied within professional education are examined. Finally, we explore the use of mentoring specifically as it is related to the area of administrative professional development.

Definitions of Mentoring

Before beginning any review of mentoring, we find it necessary to consider some of the ways in which this practice has been defined. In recent years, mentoring relationships have become extremely popular, and its application has been viewed as almost a panacea for dealing with many of the limitations often felt to exist in education as well as many other fields.

Making use of mentoring relationships as a way to enhance professional preparation activities is certainly not a new one. The concept of the mentor serving as a type of wise guide to a younger protegee dates back to Homer's Odyssey. Mentor was the teacher entrusted by Odysseus to tutor his son, Telemachus. Based on this literary description, we have been provided over the centuries with a lasting image of the wise and patient

counselor serving to shape and guide the lives of younger, less-experienced colleagues.

The image of mentoring persists in many of the most recent definitions of this practice. Ashburn, Mann, and Purdue (1987) defined mentoring as "the establishment of a personal relationship for the purpose of professional instruction and guidance." As a result, Lester (1981) noted that this activity is an important part of adult learning because of its holistic and individualized approach to learning in an experiential fashion, defined by Bova and Phillips (1984) as "learning resulting from or associated with experience."

Other related definitions are found in abundance. Sheehy (1976) defined a mentor as "one who takes an active interest in the career development of another person . . . a non-parental role model who actively provides guidance, support, and opportunities for the protegee . . . " The Woodlands Group (1980) called mentors guides "who support a person's dream and help put [the dream] into effect in the world . . . " Levinson (1978), in his classic analysis of the socialization of young men to professional roles, noted that a mentor, as a critical actor in the developmental process, is "one defined not in terms of the formal role, but in terms of the character of the relationship and the function it serves . . . a mixture of parent and peer. A mentor may act as host and guide welcoming the initiate into a new occupational and social world, and acquainting the protegee with its values, customs, resources, and cast of characters." Another definition recently suggested by Wasden and his associates (1988) is also relevant when considered in terms of its application to mentoring

for educational administrators:

> The mentor is a master at providing opportunities for the growth of others, by identifying situations and events which contribute knowledge and experience to the life of the steward. Opportunities are not happenstance; they must be thoughtfully designed and organized into logical sequence. Sometimes hazards are attached to opportunity. The mentor takes great pains to help the steward recognize and negotiate dangerous situations. In doing all this, the mentor has an opportunity for growth through service, which is the highest form of leadership.

Whatever the specific definition, the element that appears to serve as the foundation of any conceptualization of mentoring is the fact that this activity needs to be understood always as a part of the true developmental relationship that is tied directly to an appreciation of life and career stages. Kram (1985) examined mentoring in private industry and observed that different types of relationships are appropriate at various times in a person's career. She divided these times into early, middle, and late career years and suggested that people tend to have vastly different mentoring needs in each of these time frames. As Kram observed, "Research on adult development (Levinson, et al., 1978; Gould, 1978) and career development (Hall, 1976; Schein, 1976) has established that, at each stage of life and a career, individuals face a predictable set of needs and concerns which are characteristics of their particular age and career history." What is interesting to note here is the fact that discussions of mentoring relationships in education have not taken on the same perspective suggesting the need for differentiated and developmental relationships.

"Mentors" retain the same titles and responsibilities without regard for different needs and interests of people who need mentoring. The only recognition of varying support is found in the recent emphases on mentoring for first year teachers now found in many states.

Imbedded within this notion of the mentor serving as a guide to adult development is the expectation that this person is to engage in the mid-life task of generativity, or "concern for and interest in guiding the next generation" (Merriam, 1983). This practice includes "everything that is generated from generation to generation; children, products, ideas, and works of art" (Evans, 1967). This function of mentoring is a form of "torch passing" from one generation to the next. Again, few formal efforts exist to institutionalize this practice in professional education.

Given the intense and powerful nature of mentoring relationships, there are certain potentially harmful consequences of such efforts. Weber (1980), for example, noted the possible ways in which mentoring can be detrimental to growth when protegees develop too great a reliance on mentors who are expected to provide all possible answers to all possible questions. In cases such as this, mentoring no longer exists; rather, a type of dependency relationship is formed, and growth by the protegee is rarely possible.

Most current definitions place great emphasis on the ways in which the mentor provides support and guidance to the protegee. However, it must also be observed that such one-way relationships are not the only characteristics of mentoring. In fact, this relationship might also be described as a "mutually-enhancing" one (Kram, 1985) where the career advancement and personal development of each participating member was

somehow addressed. The value of this type of conceptualization is that it emphasizes the fact that true mentoring has the potential to be as beneficial to the mentor as it is to the protegee. Whether such potential is ever achieved is one of the issues currently being explored in a study of the impact of mentoring as a part of an experimental program designed to prepare future school principals (Playko & Daresh, 1988).

Mentoring is described as an accepted and vital part of the developmental processes in many different professional fields. As Schein (1978) noted, the concept has long been utilized in business organizations to connote such diverse images as "teacher, coach, trainer, positive role model, developer of talent, opener of doors, protector, sponsor, or successful leader." In fact, the current literature suggests that mentoring needs to be understood as a combination of most, if not all, of these individual role descriptors (Galvez-Hjoinevik, 1986). Thus, the practice of mentoring is a crucial one to be included as a component of any experiential professional preparation program. Guides, counselors, or coaches (if the term "mentor" becomes over-used) are needed to help neophytes negotiate their way through a field and "make sense" out of what is happening around them in an organization, and also what is going on in their personal lives. As a result, there is considerable potential to be found in applying the concept of mentoring to the professional development of school administrators (Daresh, 1988).

Mentors are different from the types of role models that may work with aspiring administrators during conventional field-based learning activities and preservice practica. Kram (1985), for example, noted that other terms which might be used to describe developmental relationships in work settings

include "sponsorship," "coaching," "role modeling," "counseling," and even "friendship." Shapiro, Haseltine, and Rowe (1978) suggested that there is a type of continuum of advisory relationships that facilitate access to positions of leadership in organizations. On one hand is a "peer pal" relationship, and on the other end of the continuum is the true mentor relationship:

> Peer pal: Someone at the same level as yourself with whom you share information, strategies, and mutual support for mutual benefit.
>
> Guide: Can explain the system but is not usually in a position to champion a protegee.
>
> Sponsor: Less powerful than a patron in promoting and shaping the career of a protegee.
>
> Patron: An influential person who uses his or her own power to help you advance in your career.
>
> Mentor: An intensive paternalistic relationship in which an individual assumes the role of both teacher and advocate.

These types of developmental relationships tend to focus on the business-oriented concept of finding relationships that are designed to foster career development. Similar perspectives are offered by many others, including Dalton, Thompson, and Price (1977), Anderson and Deianna (1980), Van Vorst (1980), and Clutterbuck (1985).

Mentoring Outside Education

Much of the current literature makes it appear that the concept of mentoring was recently invented by professional educators. Such is clearly not the case. Mentoring has long been recognized as an important activity in the world of private business and industry. Here, younger members of the organization are "shown the ropes" and led toward greater career success through the intervention of others who provide the direction necessary to achieve personal goals and ambitions. The examples of senior colleagues is a key to finding greater happiness and fulfillment on the job. For the most part, this type of mentor-protegee relationship has been an informal one where both parties involved in a relationship tend naturally to gravitate toward one another based on such things as common goals, common interests, and other factors that cannot be engineered or arranged by others. A senior staff member sees promise in "the new kid," takes an interest in that person's professional life, and over time, provides feedback to the younger co-worker so that he or she will have a better chance to succeed in the organization. The value of this type of naturally-developed mentoring has been seen by many companies as an activity that should be institutionalized, encouraged, and even required as a standard practice for all new employees. Keele, Buckner, and Bushnell (1987), among others, have noted that formal, organizationally-sponsored and endorsed mentor programs have recently been initiated in settings such as the Internal Revenue Service and many large commercial banks and insurance companies. In these and other situations where mentoring has been viewed as an effective strategy that may serve to

promote personal and professional development, the bringing of new leaders "on board" assumes many of the following characteristics noted by Henry (1987):

1. Mentoring arrangements are a small but important part of normal management training for selected employees.
2. What is typically referred to as "mentoring" often tends to be, in fact, an activity of "coaching," a showing people "how we do it around here."
3. Organizational cultures support the development of future managers, and thus there are typically certain formal or informal rewards associated with mentoring as well as being mentored.

Private industries clearly have recognized for quite some time that naturally developed, informal mentor-protegee relationships exist, and that these relationships pay dividends to the organization as well as the individual people who are involved. As a result, they are viewed as having sufficient value to warrant the creation of more formalized, institutionally-created and supported mentoring arrangements.

Another area where the concept of mentoring has received considerable attention in recent years has been in the identification and development of leadership skills by women moving into executive roles (Botton, 1980; Shakeshaft, 1987). One great barrier to women seeking advancement to managerial positions has historically been said to be the lack of other women who are available to serve as role models and mentors in superordinate positions in most organizations. There are few women who are in positions that are "higher up" in the system to open doors to individuals ready to assume greater authority, responsibility, or prestige. As a result, the

mentor has been seen as a person who is essential to assisting the individual woman learn how to cope with the realities of a system by pointing out the proper routes to follow, the situations to avoid, and the ways to behave if she wishes to become more successful in the work place (Daloz, 1983). As was true of the mentoring role described earlier in the are of private business and industry, the mentor-protegee relationship for women going into management (or any other professional role, for that matter) tends to be an informal, natural, and evolved one that is typically not structured and created by the employing system. It is a type of mentoring that simply "happens."

Mentoring in Professional Education

Within the past few years, the potential value of mentoring as a feature of professional development for educational personnel has been appreciated and understood more completely (Krupp, 1985; Krupp, 1987; Zimpher & Reiger, 1988). It is now generally accepted that wise, mature mentors have always been around to help new teachers learn their craft in ways that were not usually covered in most preservice teacher education programs in the university (Gehrke & Fay, 1984; Gehrke, 1988). What is now taking place with considerable regularity and visibility, particularly in the area of teacher education, is the development of formal, contrived, and institutionally-supported mentoring programs. Studies by Krupp (1984), Little, Gallagher, and O'Neal (1984), Showers (1984), and Huling-Austin, Baines, and Smith (1985) have all described the importance of mentoring relationships as a way of helping classroom teachers to become more

effective, and have suggested that mentoring programs must be deliberately started as a way to enhance the quality of induction for new teachers to classrooms. In this regard, Eagan and Walter (1982) studied a group of elementary school teachers early in their careers and found that those individuals who had mentors credited them with helping the teachers gain self-confidence, learn technical aspects of their jobs, better understand the expectations of administrators, develop creativity, and work effectively with others. These and many other studies of the value of mentoring for teachers (Hardcastle, 1988) have led California, Ohio (Bowers & Eberhart, 1988), and several other states to mandate mentoring systems, at least for beginning teachers. More of the same types of laws will no doubt follow across the nation over the next few years.

The Potential of Mentoring as Part of Administrator Development

It is not particularly surprising to note, then, that the role of the mentor appears to be one that will continue to play a rather significant role in future schemes designed to improve the quality of educational personnel in general, with special attention now being paid to school administrators. As emphasis has been placed on efforts to find strategies for preparing school leaders which go beyond traditional university-based programs, there is a corresponding awareness that mentoring is an important concept that has some rather obvious implications for the ways in which beginning administrators and aspiring administrators might enjoy more successful transitions from the world of teaching to the world of administering.

The concept of mentoring has at least two potential applications as a way to improve the ways in which people become school administrators. The first of these is related to the identification of individuals who would serve as appropriate role models for beginning administrators. Frequently, the term "mentor" is assigned to the experienced administrator who happens to be available to answer the questions of novice colleagues. We recognize that it would be desirable for such individuals as these to become true mentors to the beginning administrators with whom they work, and such a relationship may evolve. However, we suggest that being a sponsor, patron, or role model is by no means the same thing as being a true mentor in the ways in which we believe beginning administrators need as part of their initial professional formation. To be sure, we believe that it is crucial for someone to work with the new administrator to describe procedures, policies, and normal practices in a school or district. It is also critical that someone be able to provide feedback to the beginner concerning the extent to which he or she has been able to master the technical skills associated with the performance of an administrative role.

We suggest that there are currently some rather spirited discussions taking place in the field of teacher education which should cause us to examine quite carefully our untested beliefs in the absolute value of induction programs that place great reliance on "mentors" who serve only to show people "how to do it." In teacher education, many have questioned the assumed value of the concept of directed practice in role. From Dewey (1938) to more recent observations by Berliner (1984), Cruickshank and Armaline (1986), and Zeichner (1985), numerous cautions have been offered that field-based learning experiences may actually be viewed as

"miseducative," and that they often create cognitive and behavioral traps which close avenues to conceptual and social changes that may be warranted (Daresh & Pape, 1987). In short, many current programs that promise people success by "watching over a seasoned veteran's shoulder" may serve to prepare people only for what is found at present, not for what might be in the future. If the mentor's responsibilities are limited to the guidance of a beginning administrator to simply "survive" the first year on the job, and avoid "getting into trouble," the potential of mentoring, we believe, will rarely be reached.

A second potential value of the concept of mentoring as part of a program for the induction of beginning administrators is found in its application as part of a process that we refer to as "Professional Formation". This is a part of what we believe must be three equal parts in the development of new administrators. Other dimensions are "Academic Preparation" (where the theory of administration is presented), and "Field-Based Learning" (the acquisition of skills while actually being in the "hot seat"). Mentoring is an absolutely essential part of the Professional Formation dimension.

In our view of the induction process for beginning school administrators, there are some very distinct differences between the duties of a role model and a mentor. A role model, for example, may be seen as a person consulted periodically by the novice as a way to learn a way to construct a master schedule for a school, observe a teacher, conduct a student-parent conference, or many other daily activities, in much the same way that an apprentice may learn practical skills from a master tradesman. On the other hand, our view is that a mentor also goes beyond this modelling

function by serving as a person who is more inclined to prod the beginner to learn how to do something according to his or her personal skills and talents. In short, we believe that a mentor is likely to raise more questions than provide answers to the person with whom he or she is interacting.

Mentoring as part of the professional development of beginning school administrators is a critical responsibility. Consequently, a person who would serve as a mentor must possess the deep desire to serve in this capacity. An ideal arrangement for mentoring would involve the careful matching of protegees with ideal mentors. There would be a one-to-one matching based on analyses of professional goals, interpersonal styles, learning needs, and perhaps many other variables that might be explored prior to placing beginning administrators with their mentors. We realize that in the real world of schools, it is nearly impossible to engage in such perfect matching practices. Most mentoring relationships that are formed to comply with the expectations of the state guidelines for the induction of school administrators will be formed as "marriages of convenience," and not as ideal, naturally developed partnerships. Still, we believe that an awareness of the potential values of mentoring, as well as a review of some of the basic issues to be addressed in conceptualizing such programs will be helpful to those who are expected to provide leadership to entry year programs for school administrators.

II. WHAT IS NEEDED TO BEGIN A MENTORING PROGRAM?

The development of effective mentoring programs involves a great deal of attention to many specific issues prior to beginning the first efforts at the implementation of such activities. In this section, we turn our attention to many of these concerns, including the characteristics of good mentors and problems and issues that need to be faced as part of the design of any comprehensive program.

Characteristics of Mentors

A number of desired characteristics are listed here to aid in the selection of those who would serve as mentors in entry year programs for school administrators (Daresh & Playko, Forthcoming):

1. Mentors should have experience as practicing school administrators, and they should be generally regarded by their peers and others as being effective.
2. Mentors must demonstrate generally-accepted positive leadership qualities, such as (but not necessarily limited to):
   a. intelligence
   b. good (oral and written) communication skills
   c. past, present, and future understanding with simultaneous orientation
   d. acceptance of multiple alternative solutions to complex problems

e. clarity of vision and the ability to share that vision with others in the organization

f. well-developed interpersonal skills and sensitivities

3. Mentors need to be able to ask the right questions of beginning administrators, and not just provide the "right" answers all the time.

4. Mentors must accept "another way of doing things," and avoid the tendency to tell beginners that the way to do something is" the way I used to do it."

5. Mentors should express the desire to see people go beyond their present levels of performance, even if it might mean that they are able to do some things better than the mentors might be able to do the same things.

6. Mentors need to model the principles of continuous learning and reflection.

7. Mentors must exhibit the awareness of the political and social realities of life in at least one school system; they must know the "real way" that things get done.

In addition, Patricia Haensly and Elaine Edlind (1986) suggested the following characteristics of "ideal" mentors:

1. Outstanding knowledge, skills, and expertise in a particular domain.

2. Enthusiasm that is sincere, convincing, and most importantly, constantly conveyed to their protegees.

3. The ability to communicate to others a clear picture of their personal attitudes, values, and ethical standards.

4. The ability to communicate sensitively the type of feedback that is needed regarding their protegee's development and progress toward desirable standards and competence and professional behavior.
5. Sensitive listening ability to their protegee's ideas, doubts, concerns, and enthusiastic outpourings.
6. A caring attitude and a belief in their protegee's potential.
7. Flexibility and a sense of humor.
8. A restrained sense of guidance so that their protegee may develop as independently as possible.

There are also some characteristics of individuals which might signal the fact that they will probably not serve as very effective mentors. Among those features, we note the following:

1. Ineffective mentors are those who are too heavily involved with the internal politics of a school system, to the extent that their primary goal is to survive the system and increase their personal status within the district. It is important for a newcomer to understand the political realities of a school system. It is not important for a person to learn how to spend most of his or her time simply "jockeying" for position.
2. It is not typically a wise move to arrange a mentoring relationship between a novice and a person who is also new to his or her position as a mentor. This is true even if the mentor has many years of experience at another position in the system. For example, a former experienced principal in his or her first year in a central office position frequently has so many things to learn that he or she may need a mentor, and may not have the time to spend with a beginning principal.

3. Mentors should not be assigned because the school system believes that such an assignment will serve to "fix" a marginally effective administrator. While it is true that service as a mentor has been shown to be a way to increase the mentor's effectiveness, it does not make good sense to match a beginner with anyone who is not able to demonstrate the very best behaviors associated with being an educational administrator.
4. Ineffective mentors have a long history of high staff turnover rates in their buildings or school districts.
5. Ineffective mentors demonstrate "know it all" behaviors and attitudes when discussing their approaches to dealing with administrative problems. Clearly, self-confidence is a desirable characteristic for a mentor. Being close-minded about alternative solutions to complex problems, however, is probably a mark of a person's insecurity and lack of confidence. Such features would not qualify a person as a particularly effective mentor.

There are also some distinct potential problems associated with mentoring. The use of mentoring relationships is widely-supported as a valuable approach to professional development for people in many different professional fields. However, there are some problems:

1. Mentors may become too protective and controlling.
2. Mentors may have personal agendas to fulfill.
3. Beginning principals may get only a limited perspective from a single mentor.
4. Mentors may not acknowledge the limitations of their protegees.
5. Beginners may become too dependent on their mentors.

6. Beginners may idealize and idolize their mentors.
7. Beginners may try to become "carbon copies" of their mentors.
8. Formal mentoring arrangements may be too structured.
9. Mentors may compose all beginning principals to an ideal vision or standard of performance which may never be realized.

Responsibilities of Mentors

Despite any apparent limitations on the use of mentoring as a central part of induction programs for school administrators, there continues to be tremendous values that may be achieved through these types of programs. Most of these benefits are achieved when mentors become engaged in carrying out a variety of special functions and responsibilities. Among the most important are:

1. Advising: In this way, the mentor responds to a protegee's need to gain additional information needed to carry out a job effectively.
2. Communicating: Here, the mentor works consistently to ensure that open lines of communication are always available between himself or herself and the protegee.
3. Counseling: The mentor provides needed emotional support to the protegee.
4. Guiding: In this way, the mentor works to orient and acquaint the new administrator to the informal and formal norms of a particular school system.

5. Modeling: The mentor serves as a true role model to the protegee by consistently demonstrating professional and competent performance on the job.

6. Protecting: When needed, the mentor serves as a buffer between the protegee and those in the school system who might wish to detract from the beginner's performance.

7. Skill Developing: The mentor assists the protegee in learning skills needed to carry out the job effectively.

In addition to these listed responsibilities, the mentor must also be willing to provide the time that may be needed by a beginning administrator to simply talk about job-related concerns. Perhaps the most important thing that anyone can do as a mentor is to be available when needed by the protegee, not to "fix" problems, but rather, to indicate that someone cares about what the beginner is doing.

Benefits of Mentoring

It shall be clear to this point that mentoring is not an easy activity, and those who serve as mentors have many difficult duties to perform. As a result, we point out that there are many benefits to be derived from a well-designed mentoring program. These benefits might best be described in terms of things that are likely to assist the person serving as a mentor.

Gray (1983) and Clutterbuck (1985) identified three major sets of benefits to be derived by those who serve as mentors. These include improved job satisfaction, increased peer recognition, and potential career advancement.

Perhaps the greatest number of rewards for mentors are found in the area of improved job satisfaction. Here, mentors may find that grooming a promising new administrator is a challenging and stimulating personal experience, particularly if the mentor has reached a point in his or her own career where a lot of the earlier "excitement" is disappearing. Mentors often find that their service in this capacity is rewarding in other ways. One example of this is found when a protegee is successful and performs his or her job well. Mentors also frequently report a sense of satisfaction in seeing the values and culture of a school system handed over to a new generation.

Mentors also frequently indicate that their experiences are "worth it" because they get increased recognition from their peers. In private business, in particular, a mentor who identifies a promising employee often acquires a reputation for having the type of insight into the needs of the company that should be rewarded. This type of benefit is not likely to occur in administrative mentoring programs designed to support beginners. However, it is likely that some mentors have in the past and will continue in the future to identify and "tap" talented teachers and other staff members in their schools to go into administration in the first place.

Finally, mentors also indicate that they find satisfaction in their role because it often provides them with opportunities for personal career advancement. In this regard, a major pay-off is found in that mentors often benefit from the energy and enthusiasm of those who are protegees. The mentor also receives new ideas and perspectives by allowing protegees to add their own insights into the ways in which organizational problems might be addressed. Mentors who are attentive to the potential of those with whom

they interact may be able to capitalize on a new source of knowledge, insight, and talent, and they may be able to translate this into their own professional growth and advancement. Indeed, wise "old dogs" may learn many "new tricks" from some "young pups," if they are wise enough to stop and listen.

Characteristics and Duties of Protegees

As we have noted throughout this manual, the people who participate in mentoring programs bear a major portion of the responsibility for making such programs successful. Mentors must possess certain characteristics in order to be considered effective. Protegees also have certain responsibilities as partners in these relationships as well. Haensly and Edlind (1986) identified some of the most important characteristics and duties of those who are being mentored in formal programs. They noted that "ideal" protegees should possess:

1. Enthusiasm about the domain in which they are working, and also about their personal involvement in the study of that domain.
2. The ability to demonstrate initiative along with a conscientious effort to develop their own self-potential.
3. A commitment to carry through on suggested plans and activities and a desire to go beyond any established minimal levels of performance.
4. An open-minded, objective, and non-defensive attitude.
5. A degree of insightfulness about self and others, often tempered by a good sense of humor.

In addition to these types of commitments and personal characteristics, protegees have some additional duties to perform if mentoring arrangements are to achieve the goals that are established. There are several responsibilities that protegees need to be aware of on a day-to-day basis. For example, they can learn from the many people who work in their school systems, in addition to their assigned mentors. In this way, there is less likelihood that mentoring arrangements would necessarily become dependency relationships. Second, protegees need to come forward to their mentors to seek advice regarding specific issues and concerns. Mentors cannot be expected to be "mind readers" who will know all the concerns that are faced by their less-experienced colleagues. Protegees have a responsibility to articulate their concerns in an open and honest fashion. A third duty of protegees is that they need to remain open to the suggestions that are offered by their mentors. If people act as if they know all the answers before asking the question, mentors will likely lose much of their enthusiasm to work with protegees.

Mentoring is an interactive and dynamic process that requires both parties--mentor and protegee--to invest time and effort to make sure that a "mutually-enhancing" relationship can be developed. If it cannot, the ideal of mentoring might be reduced simply to a mandated part of a required program that will not achieve its full potential to assist new administrators in the field.

Benefits to Protegees

Despite all of the difficulties that might be part of the design of a mentoring program, it is necessary to remember that there are many benefits to be achieved by the beginning administrator as a protegee. These benefits, in our view, greatly outweigh any disadvantages related to program design.

Among the benefits often cited by those who have served as protegees in mentoring programs for administrator professional development are the following:

1. Working with a mentor is a way to build confidence and competence. Protegees enjoy working with people who sense that they possess skills needed to meet new professional challenges. They are able to receive the type of "tapping" encouragement, and reinforcement from their mentors that enable them to look to their future responsibilities with a good deal more confidence.
2. The mentoring experience provides people with the opportunity to blend the theory of administration learned through university courses with real-life applications out in the field. People can see ideas being translated into action on a daily basis in real school settings by real school practitioners.
3. Communication skills are frequently improved. Working on a regular basis with mentors gives people the ability to fine-tune their ability and to express important ideas to their colleagues.
4. Protegees report that they are able to learn many important "tricks of

the trade." They are often able to pick up a number of proven techniques and strategies that mentors have used successfully in different settings. As a consequence, they are able to build personalized "bags of tricks" to use on the job at different times in the future.

5. Perhaps most importantly, protegees express a feeling that they are now "connected" with at least one other person who understands the nature of the world in which they must work. There is little doubt that one of the most frustrating parts of the school administrator's life is that he or she must often go about the business of leading while in isolation. A mentoring relationship reduces this type of situation greatly.

Mentor-Protegee Matching

Matching mentors with protegees is neither an easy nor precise task. It would be highly desirable to match every beginning school administrator with a mentor who possesses a sincere and deep desire to spend time working productively with a novice colleague. The fact is, however, that such commitment may not always be available, particularly in very small school systems where few administrators are available to serve as mentors.

The ideal matching of mentors and protegees should be based on an analysis of professional goals, interpersonal styles, and learning needs of both parties. It is nearly impossible in the "real world" to engage in such perfect matching practices. Most mentoring relationships will likely be formed as "marriages of convenience," and not as ideal, naturally-developing

relationships so often presented in the literature related to mentoring practices in organizations. However, if individual awareness of the values to be found in mentoring, a regard for mutual respect and trust, and a sense of openness and positive interaction are all present, then the mentor-protegee relationship has the potential to be as strong as possible.

No magic recipes exist to guide the matching of mentors to protegees. However, some of the issues that might be considered when a school district begins to develop a local program include the following:

1. Cross-gender mentoring (Will it be possible for men to work effectively with female colleagues? Women to work with men?).
2. Mentoring across organizational levels (Can a superintendent serve as a mentor to a beginning principal?).
3. Differences in ages (Can younger, but more experienced, administrators serve as effective mentors to older colleagues who are just beginning their administrative careers?).
4. Mentoring across school systems (Is it necessary for the mentor and protegee to be employed by the same school system? Can productive mentoring relationships be developed across school district boundaries?).

Answers to these and other questions related to strategies which may be utilized to match mentors with protegees must be addressed at the local level. Little research has been conducted to guide program developers with making these choices. Further, local conditions such as the personalities of mentor administrators and beginners, traditions of cooperation, and other aspects of life in particular school systems have a major impact on the way in which a program might be developed.

III. HOW DOES A MENTORING PROGRAM GET STARTED?

To this point, we have described some of the basic features of mentoring as it relates to the professional development of school administrators. We presented an overview of concept of mentoring, and we indicated some of the most outstanding characteristics of mentors, along with benefits that are typically experienced by those who serve as mentors. We also talked about the roles and responsibilities of those who are being mentored, or protegees. We concluded our discussion of some basic issues by considering the ways in which mentors and protegees might be brought together effectively.

In this section, we assume that you have accepted the notion that mentoring is something that may be an effective practice, and that you would like to develop a local program. In the pages that follow, we shall describe some of the ways in which a mentoring program might be started.

Training for Mentors

The practice of mentoring serves as a very important part of planned efforts to support beginning school administrators. School districts that are about to implement programs designed to assist beginning school administrators will likely find it necessary to develop specialized training activities to help those individuals who have been identified as mentors to carry out their responsibilities as effectively as possible.

Fundamental Assumptions

Four major conditions need to exist in a school or district if mentor training is to be effective. Any system undertaking the establishment of a mentoring program will take steps to establish trust and openness among the administrators of the district, will invest sufficient resources to support a mentoring program, will develop and maintain open and honest communication patterns, and will show awareness and sensitivity to the unique learning needs of adults.

Trust building. In order for mentoring to be successful, positive rapport and trust need to exist among the personnel involved in the program. If working relationships among administrators are marked by feelings of jealousy, disrespect, and fear, administrative mentoring programs have little chance to succeed.

The best situation for the establishment of an effective mentoring program would be one that is endorsed by all staff members working in harmony toward a common set of personal and professional goals. In such an arrangement, the prevailing view might be that all individuals sincerely believe that no one person can be any stronger than the weakest individual in the organization. As a result, there is a constant effort to make certain that everyone is as successful as possible. Unfortunately, such a norm does not always exist in school districts or individual schools.

Several strategies might be utilized to promote the development of greater rapport and more trusting relationships in schools. Idol-Maestas, Nevin, and Paolucci-Whitcomb (1985) suggested the following behaviors that

might be carried out as a way to promote more positive and trusting work climate:

1. Each member of the organization needs to be conscious of his or her commitment to treat others with respect, even when disagreement is present.
2. All individuals must demonstrate a willingness to learn from others.
3. A commitment is needed so that everyone shares information that is relevant to the goals of the organization.
4. Individual differences among organizational members are recognized and responded to in a positive fashion.
5. All parties in the organization are invited to give feedback, and also receive feedback when provided by others.
6. Others are openly given credit for their ideas and other contributions to the organization.
7. Confrontation skills are utilized correctly and in a positive fashion.

The key to these ideas having a discernible impact on the quality of life in a school is the extent to which people are willing to follow through with their dedication to the development of a more open climate. The seven steps noted above cannot merely be taped on a wall and forgotten. Someone or some group must accept the responsibility for making certain that a sincere effort is being made to carry out each practice.

Sufficient resources. If mentoring programs are to achieve their fullest potential as serving as the basis of strong professional development activities for school administrators, school districts need to have invested a reasonable amount of support for programs. This support is not confined to the expenditure of money but, even more importantly, in terms of an

investment of time and talent by people. Clearly, this includes those individuals who are to be directly involved as either mentors or protegees. In addition, even those not participating on a continuing basis—people such as the district superintendent, other building administrators, school board members—must continue to invest time and caring in the ongoing activities of mentors and beginning administrators. For example, a district may enact a policy which enables certain administrators to be relieved of other duties so that they might have more time to devote to the mentoring process.

Open communication. Another fundamental assumption is that school districts develop and maintain open communication patterns. In this way, people will be able to learn about how to perform their roles much more effectively. System wide patterns of open communication promotes similar patterns among the mentor and the protegee.

People can learn to talk to one another. Understanding and enhancing the communication process is also largely dependent upon the development of a set of specific skills. Richard Gorton (1986) has suggested some useful strategies for this important effort:

1. Paraphrasing: Restate the main ideas of others in order to clarify those ideas. ("In other words, what you're saying is . . . ").
2. Perception checking: Check to see if one's perception of what has been said is accurate. ("If I understand you correctly, you're saying . . . ").
3. Relating things to personal feelings: Communication can break down because receivers have a negative reaction to statements; what a person says offends, often unintentionally. A person must confront such negative feelings openly when they occur. ("When you say that, I feel like . . . ").

4. Using objective descriptions: The use of highly subjective terms that imply personal value statements hurts open communication. It is necessary to describe behaviors with objective terms, when possible, so that people are less likely to say, "It's not what you're saying that I reject, but rather how you're saying it."

5. Feedback: People in organizations must learn to give and accept in return constructive and honest feedback to keep communication channels open between and among all parties.

Adult learning: Educators have considerable experience and expertise in dealing with children as learners. Mentors need to appreciate that their role calls for them to be sensitive to the concerns of adults as learners.

Adults have different learning needs from those of children. Malcolm Knowles (1970), a major contributor to the field of adult education, identified four critical characteristics of adults and their patterns of learning:

1. As a person matures, his or her self-concept moves from one of dependency to one of self-direction.
2. The mature person tends to accumulate a growing reservoir of experience that provides a resource for learning.
3. The adult's readiness to learn becomes increasingly oriented toward the developmental tasks of his or her assigned social roles.
4. The adult's time perspective changes from postponed application of knowledge to immediate application, and accordingly his or her orientation toward learning shifts from subject-centeredness to problem-centeredness.

Predictably, Knowles's work encouraged others to research and write in the field of adult education, and some researchers' work is useful in developing effective mentoring programs. Wood and Thompson (1980), for example, reviewed some salient aspects of adult learning:

1. Adults will learn the goals and objectives of a learning activity which are considered by the learner to be realistic, related, and important to a specific issue at hand.
2. Adults will learn, retain, and use what they perceive as relevant to their immediate personal and professional needs.
3. Adults need to see the results of their efforts and have frequent and accurate feedback about progress that is being made toward their goals.
4. Adult learning is highly ego involved. When a person is unsuccessful at a given learning task, it is likely that he or she will take it as an indication of personal incompetency and failure.
5. Adults always come to any learning experience with a wide range of previous experiences, knowledge, skills, and competencies.
6. Adults want to be the origins of their own learning, and they wish to be directly involved in the selection of learning objectives, content, and activities.
7. Adults will tend to resist any learning experience that they believe is either an open or implied attack on their personal or professional competence.
8. Adults reject prescriptions by others for their learning.
9. Adult motivation comes from the learner and not from any external source. While this may generally be said of motivation of all

individuals, it is true that, as a person matures, efforts to motivate from outside the individual will decrease in probable effectiveness.

Taken together, these characteristics of adult learning should provide administrative mentors with some important insights. First, the fact that adults want (and learn best from) experiences that address immediate problems suggests that mentors should direct activities toward answering the perennial question, "What should I do on Monday morning?" Mentors must be careful in this regard, however. Any tendency to try to provide protegees with too much advice can prove to be counter-productive.

Knowledge about adult learning also provides important clues to mentors about adult self-concept needs. As people become more mature, they become increasingly self-conscious in situations where they believe they might experience failure in front of others. Effective mentors practice confidentiality in their encounters with their protegees. And they avoid public comparisons of their protegees with others.

Finally, mentors should recognize the potential richness of learning experiences their protegees have accumulated. Thus, these experiences could serve as building blocks for positive relationships between mentors and protegees.

Skills for Effective Mentoring

When the assumptions above have been satisfied, it is possible to begin to develop a formal mentoring program in a school system. At least three specific skill areas have been identified as clearly related to the types of activities carried out by mentors, and as a result, training needs to be directed toward each of these. They include problem-solving skills, conferencing skills, and observation skills.

Problem-Solving Skills

The essence of effective administration involves the resolution of problems faced by people in organizations. As a result, mentoring relationships for beginning school administrators must properly be directed toward the discovery of ways to refine problem-solving skills.

One model that might be consulted as the basis for developing practical skills associated with administrative problem solving is suggested by Gordon (1987). It consists of the following seven steps which might be shared with a novice administrator faced with considering an issue associated with his or her job:

1. Seek information about the perceived problem: (If existence of a particular problem is verified, this information can be useful for the next steps in the process).
2. Define the problem: (Identify the desired situation and compare it to the actual one. Moving from the actual to the desired situation is the goal of problem solving).

3. Propose alternative strategies: (To solve the problem. Generate as many potential strategies as possible; hold evaluations until later in the process).

4. Select strategies for implementation: (After weighing the advantages and disadvantages of each proposed strategy, choose the ones most likely to succeed).

5. Design an action plan: (Translate strategies into specific actions, agree on who is responsible for which actions, identify and secure resources, set a time line, and plan to assess actions taken).

6. Implement the action plan.

7. Assess the action plan: (Did the action plan produce the desired situation identified in the first step of this process? Continue, modify, or abandon the action plan depending on the outcome of the assessment).

The mentor might wish to review these seven basic steps prior to the first time in which a beginning administrator might encounter a problem that might call for this type of linear problem-solving model to be used. Another effective technique would involve the examination and review of these steps as a novice administrator is asked to "work through" a particular problem issue that was encountered on the job.

Conferencing Skills

Much of the interaction between mentors and beginning administrators will take place during one-to-one conferencing situations. Some information in the general literature relate to supervision, and in particular clinical and developmental supervision may be helpful to mentors who are seeking information for appropriate ways of working with beginning administrators.

The majority of the work dealing with the use of conferencing practices between educators, deals with strategies utilized by administrative personnel who are working with classroom teachers. Therefore, administrative mentors will need to adapt and modify information presented in the literature related to teacher conferences to address the needs, concerns, and sensitivities found in administrative mentor-protegee conferences.

The nature of school administration and professional development for educational administrators makes it quite inappropriate to attempt any direct transfer of teacher supervision or teacher mentoring practices to working with administrators. For one thing, conferences involving administrative mentors and their protegees will typically be apart from any immediate observation of performance, as is true of conferences utilized for classroom teachers. Further, it is absolutely essential in programs of administrative mentoring that the notion of peer relationships between mentors and protegees remain intact. Conferencing between administrators and teachers will always contain a strong element of subordinate-superordinate matching, regardless of whether the conferencing takes place as part of formative or summative evaluation. Conferences between administrators in a mentoring relationship must never be viewed in the same light.

Two sources of information on conferencing include collegial decision making and Peer-Assisted Leadership (PAL). Conferencing built on the notion of collegial decision making is based on the assumption that all partners in the process are considered equals, and that there is a degree of openness, trust, and honesty which prevails in the partnership. Generally,

collegial decision making may be seen as a way of making incremental changes in the quality of things done on a continuing basis. The objectives of this approach are as follows (Hitt, 1978):

1. To share experiences and ideas and to get support from one or more colleagues who may be enlisted to work toward the achievement of common goals.
2. To promote active and open communication skills.
3. To share problems, generate alternative solutions, evaluate alternatives, and select the most appropriate and feasible alternatives.
4. To provide assistance and encouragement to all parties in the collegial process.
5. To assist both mentors and protegees regarding particular administrative problems.
6. To provide a climate which promotes mutual support and stimulation of the professional growth of both the mentor and the protegee.

Collegial decision making is by no means an easy process to implement in a school setting. It makes the assumption that all participants are able to engage in continuing, open dialogue to achieve solutions that are shared. As a result, this approach to conferencing precludes behavior by mentors which suggests that they will tell the protegee what to do. No one partner is to act in a superior way to the other; the mentor does not talk to the protegee to "fix" their problems. The emphasis on a mentor-protegee relationship is placed on parity, mutuality, and honest discourse.

The Peer-Assisted Leadership (PAL) model for administrator inservice that was developed by the Far West Regional Educational Laboratory in San

Francisco (Barnett, 1986) provides a strategy that might also be consulted in developing conferencing skills by administrative mentors. PAL, in fact, is a comprehensive model that suggests that administrators will be provided with effective professional development by engaging in a systematic process of peer observation and conferencing. The primary purposes of PAL involve reducing the isolation so many principals experience by allowing them to gain greater insights into their own leadership behavior. These general purposes are supported through the specific goals of the program, which include helping principals to do the following:

1. Learn and apply new ways to think about instructional leadership.
2. Analyze their own and another principal's behavior.
3. Integrate the instructional leadership framework into their own settings.
4. Learn how other principals lead their schools.
5. Form a collegial support system in which new ideas and insights are shared and change is nurtured and supported.

Operationally, PAL works by pairing principals (perhaps as mentor and protegee) to form a supportive team who agree to spend time in shadowing the other partner, and then engaging in face-to-face interviews and conferences. The primary emphasis in these sessions is to enable both partners to reflect on the nature of the activities recently observed in the shadowing phase. The following questions serve as the basis for the peer conference sessions:

1. What did you see when you watched the other principal?
2. What did you infer from his or her behavior?

3. What insights did you gain into your own behavior after observing the activities of another colleague?
4. How would you change your own behavior as a principal after what you have observed?
5. In what ways to you believe that you are a more effective instructional leader after what you have observed in the behavior of a colleague?

Observation Skills

Observation skills for those who would like to see what administrators do are considerably different from those used for teacher observations. After all, it is not possible to schedule a "drop in" observation to see someone administer in the same way that an observer can slip into the back of a teacher's class for just a few minutes.

A recommended practice for those who wish to see what other administrators are doing is to engage in on-the-job shadowing. In this approach to observation, one administrator agrees to follow a colleague around during a typical work day. During that period of shadowing, the observer says nothing and avoids any direct involvement in the activities of his or her partner. The emphasis is on complete non-participant observation. The amount of the time for the shadowing may vary according to time constraints of the partner administrators. However, it should be of sufficient duration that the observer can gain insights into what a typical period of time is like in the life of the other administrator. The most important feature of the shadowing experience comes after the period of observation has concluded and the two parties engage in the type of open, reflective conferencing described earlier.

The whole issue of observation of administrators is problematic in the mentor setting. It is likely that mentors and protegees will be in different buildings or, at times, other school districts. As a result, opportunities for observation may be limited. Strategies need to be built so that the protegee will be able to get a valid question to the inevitable question, "How am I doing?"

A Knowledge Base for Mentors

Earlier, we presented information concerning the required skills and assumptions associated with administrative mentors. In this section, another important issue is reviewed, namely the identification of a critical knowledge base that needs to be addressed by those who will assist in the forging of future administrative practice. In summary, mentors need to be aware of the characteristics of effective schools, recent research related to affective instructional leadership by principals, and the critical needs of beginning school administrators.

Effective Schools Research

During the 1970's and 1980's many researchers attempted to answer a very simple but important question: What is an effective school? A review of recent research yields the following seven factors which represent essential ingredients in effective elementary and secondary schools:

1. A Sense of Mission. Effective schools make a conscious decision to become effective and that is their mission. A collegial decision and commitment is made to assure minimum mastery of basic school skills for all pupils. Pupil acquisition of basic school skills takes precedence

over all other school activities and, when necessary, school energy and resources are diverted from other activities to achieve that end.

2. Strong Building Leadership. Effective schools have principals who are, in fact, the instructional leaders of the staff. They are creative, bold, supportive and dedicated to the mission of the school. They are active and involved with all parts of their educational community.

3. High Expectations for all Students and Staff. Effective schools expect teachers to teach and pupils to learn. Standards are high but realistic. No student is allowed to attain less than minimum mastery of the basic skills of the assigned level. The teachers believe they have the ability to provide the required instructional program and that all students can master the basic skills they teach.

4. Frequent Monitoring of Student Progress. Effective schools have teachers and principals who are constantly aware of pupil progress in relationship to the instructional objectives. Frequent monitoring of pupil progress may be as traditional as classroom testing on the day's lesson or as advanced as criterion-referenced system wide standardized testing measures.

5. A Positive Learning Climate. Effective schools have an atmosphere that is orderly without being rigid, quiet without being oppressive, and generally conducive to the instructional mission. The climate is warm and responsive, emphasizes cognitive development, is innovating, and provides a student support system.

6. Sufficient Opportunity for Learning. Effective schools emphasize more time on task. The more time spent in instruction, the greater the

learning that takes place. Implications exist for improved use of time, individualized instruction, and curriculum content.

7. Parent/Community Involvement. Effective schools have broad support. Parents influence their children in a number of ways: through their expectations for the children, through their own involvement, and through direct instruction.

Research on Instructional Leadership

The current literature stresses the fact that it is the principal who is the "key" ingredient to developing and maintaining effective schools. Researchers have discovered that the key to this effectiveness is derived from the principal's ability to serve as an instructional leader. Much has been written about the characteristics of principals who serve as instructional leaders.

Despite the amount of discussion about the concept of instructional leadership, little has been done to define that concept operationally. Few studies have been undertaken to determine the specific behaviors of administrators who serve as instructional leaders. Early efforts tended to define leadership behavior in very narrow terms. As a result, most early descriptions focused only on the ways in which school principals became directly involved with instructional activities, and the perception grew that only those principals who spent nearly all of their time either teaching classes or observing teachers were legitimately serving as instructional leaders. This narrow view has more recently been rejected for at least two reasons. First, we now recognize that individuals beside the principal might indeed engage in instructional leadership behaviors. Second, we have increasingly realized that instructional leadership can

take forms that go well beyond direct intervention in classroom activities. The definition of instructional leadership provided by Liu (1984) is a helpful one to consider when thinking about a more expansive view:

> Instructional leadership consists of direct or indirect behaviors that significantly affect teacher instruction and, as a result, student learning.

Another recent effort that serves as a way to increase our understanding of the exact nature of instructional leadership comes from work by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) which looked at the work of numerous principals identified as instructional leaders. Five behavioral patterns were identified in those individuals who were viewed as effective:

1. They provide a sense of mission to their schools: They demonstrate the ability to articulate what a school is supposed to do, particularly in terms of what it should do to benefit children. Effective instructional leaders leave little doubt that the purpose of the school is to find ways in which children may learn successfully. This vision guides all other actions.
2. They engage in participative management: They encourage a better organizational climate in the school by allowing teachers and staff to participate meaningfully in real decision making, and not merely in an effort to "play at" getting people to be involved when decisions are already made. The staff senses greater ownership in the priorities and programs that are available to help children.
3. They provide support for instruction: Instructional leaders are so committed to maintaining quality instruction as their primary

organizational focus that when decisions must be made concerning priorities, instruction always comes first. These individuals make it clear to all around them that energy will be expended to assure that resources are available to enable the instructional program of the school to proceed unabated.

4. Instructional leaders monitor instruction: They know what is going on in the classrooms of their schools. This monitoring may take several forms, from direct in-class intensive observation to merely walking around the building and talking with students. The critical issue, regardless of the particular procedures followed, is that instructional leaders are aware of the quality of instruction being carried out in their schools.

5. They are resourceful: Instructional leaders rarely allow circumstances in their organizations to get in the way of their vision for quality educational programs. As a result, they tend not to allow the lack of resources, or apparently prohibitive school or district policies, or any other factors from interfering with their goals for their schools.

Instructional leaders carry out these five behavior patterns very differently. Thus, people with different personalities and philosophies, values, and attitudes can be equally effective as instructional leaders. In addition, entirely different schools can serve as settings for instructional leadership in the way it has been described through the ASCD work.

Developing a Professional Identity

In addition to the general concerns related to effective schools and instructional leaders, mentors need to be aware of the research base regarding the critical needs of beginning administrators. The one thing

that stands out in the literature: Beginning administrators need to develop a strong professional self-identity. Research clearly shows that beginners need to demonstrate self-esteem, self-confidence, and an appreciation of the wide range of responsibilities of the role. In short, the most critical need for a beginning administrator is to answer the following two questions: Who am I? Who am I now that I am a leader? The mentor, then, has a particularly important role to play in helping his or her protegee develop personalized responses to these important questions.

IV. A MODEL FOR TRAINING MENTORS

Throughout this Manual, we have indicated a number of important characteristics of mentoring as it may be applied in programs designed to support the professional induction of school administrators. We looked at the nature of mentoring in education as well as other professional organizations. We also considered some of the features of effective mentors as well as the responsibilities of protegees as partners in mentoring relationships. Finally, we reviewed some of the things that might serve as the content in a program that may be designed as a way to train administrative mentors.

In this final section of the Manual, we propose a model, in outline form, for an intensive training program that might be sponsored by a local school district, the state department of education, a university, or another agency which might have an interest in such an effort. We make the assumption that this training experience would last for one week, and that it would probably be offered during the summer immediately before a mentor program might be initiated.

In order to develop, formulate, and implement a program such as this into any school district, there are certain procedures that must be followed to ensure general success of the program and acceptance by district personnel. This process is cyclical in nature and each step provides incremental development and acceptance of the program. There are ten generic steps that are useful in the implementation of a mentoring program.

These steps would include:

1. Commitment by the district central administration and school board.
2. Establishment of board policy.
3. Development of a planning team that will coordinate the efforts of the program at the local district level.
4. Assessment of needs that should be addressed through the program.
5. Planning a budget.
6. Allocation of human and material resources needed for the program.
7. Designing the structure.
8. Development of appropriate goals and objectives for the program.
9. Implementation of the program.
10. Evaluation of the program.

As these steps are being addressed, the planning team, or task force, that has been brought together to lead the training of administrative mentors should also be developing a selection process that incorporates what we have indicated are the desirable characteristics of individuals who would serve as mentors.

Once the initial planning process has taken place, and after the selection of mentors has been carried out, the actual training may be implemented. The week-long intensive learning session should be based on what has already been identified through existing literature as important learning for mentors. The training model that we suggest contains six domains that we believe reflect the realities of administrative life as well as preparing individuals to become effective mentors for beginning administrators. These domains are (1) appreciation of a validated knowledge base, (2) instructional skills, (3) mentoring skills, (4) human

relations skills, (5) district needs, and (6) personal formative. This model is designed to provide a foundation in the development and refinement of an independent, effective, successful, instructional leader.

Each domain in our training model is equal, interdependent, and is cyclical in nature.

Appreciation of Validated Knowledge Base

Often, an individual will make a decision based on the preference and demands of the "crowd" or on personal biases. It would be a helpful strategy to develop an orientation for protegees to seek validated information before making decisions. This would occur if individuals were actively involved in contributing to the development of research in the profession, or actively using recent research as a way to inform practice. Principals should be aware of their school environment, the needs of individuals within their schools, and the nature of trends and practices that would be appropriate and best serve the needs of those individuals.

Instructional Skills

As we have noted, the key ingredient in effective schools is the principal. If this person has the ability to serve as an instructional leader, then the school will become even more effective as student learning is enhanced. We believe that at least part of the time involved in a program designed to train administrative mentors must involve a review of the specific skills associated with instructional leadership, as we noted earlier in this Manual.

Mentoring Skills

The training must devote time to reinforcing the view that the mentor and protegee are both participants of the mentoring "team." In order for

the relationship to be a positive one, the mentor needs to be available to offer assistance, support, and guidance to the beginning principal. This availability could be to observe the protegee "in action" and then share some insights derived from this process. Training must focus on the development and promotion of peer-to-peer relationships.

In general, the mentor needs training to help him or her realize that this is a major commitment of time, effort, and energy. It should be a valued experience that is mutually shared by both the mentor and protegee. Realizing that there are "peaks and valleys" built into any intense working relationship is important, and part of the mentor training must be directed toward this understanding.

Human Relations Skills

Mentoring is based on a mutually-enhancing relationship. It is important for the mentor to be knowledgeable about the psychological and humanistic aspects of a relationship in order to create successful communication skills and listening skills, and to cultivate other abilities such as being honest, trustful, sincere, genuine, and sensitive.

In addition, part of the training experience should be devoted to increasing mentors' awareness of adult learning styles, as we described earlier in this Manual.

School District Needs

This domain involves the review of issues and concerns that are unique to the individual school districts in which the mentor-protegee programs are to be implemented. Time must be provided as part of the week-long training exercise to address the issue of "Who, When, What, and How" things get done in particular districts. Mentors need to receive general orientations to

the goals of their districts, important policies, and procedures that are particularly important in each district. In this way, protegees will learn about committees, personnel, and the general structure of the organization in which they will work.

Personal Formation

The final domain in which part of the training of mentors should be inverted is related to the ability of helping mentors work with their protegees in the area of personal formation. A major responsibility of a mentor must be to help his or her protegee understand his or her personal abilities while assuming a new professional role.

Training may be provided in a number of important concepts. Perhaps the most important of these involves the development of reflective processes. Incorporating reflective actions into one's behavioral repertoire is important.

V. SOME CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

Ultimately, we believe that becoming an effective mentor is the product of several things. For one thing, effective mentors possess many of the basic characteristics that we outlined earlier. Effective mentors also come to their responsibilities with a deep sense of wanting to serve others and provide expertise to their new colleagues. We also believe that there are certain training activities that may be provided as preservice preparation for those who may be called upon to serve in mentoring programs, and that these activities will enhance natural skills and attitudes that may be present on the part of practicing administrators.

The specific format to be followed in the training of mentors may vary considerably from session to session, but we believe that any effort at training should include some attention to the following broad issues.

1. Review of basic assumptions, concepts, and definitions associated with mentoring as a way to assist beginning administrators.
2. Discussion of basic beliefs, values, and assumptions concerning desirable administrative practice. What is "leadership", for example?
3. Development of awareness of personal strengths and limitations that may be called upon in the performance of the mentoring role.
4. Review of feedback techniques and other forms of interpersonal communication skills.
5. Understanding of interpersonal styles so that matches with protegees may be productive.

Much of this approach to the training of mentors is based on the assumption that, because mentoring involves the need to form intense interpersonal relationships between mentors and protegees, the most critical part of training is that mentors must be made aware of the likelihood that significant differences may be found in the personal learning and behavioral styles of the people with whom they must work. Consequently, a heavy emphasis should be placed on training activities directed toward the need to understand ways of overcoming interpersonal differences that my exist between mentors and protegees.

Before any of the recommendations for mentoring are to be implemented, we make a few additional comments regarding the essential task of preparing a school system for mentoring. We believe that the school system must be examined to determine whether it is ready to accept the implementation of a truly effective mentoring program. In order to determine readiness, we suggest that answers should be sought to each of these basic questions:

1. Is the current top administration of the school district committed?

Even when mentoring programs have been mandated by state departments of education, there is little likelihood that they will be successful in the long run if there is not a true commitment by top school district officials to the concept. Superintendents, central office administrators, and the school board must "buy into" the basic assumptions of value that underlie any mentoring system. Without such true commitment, mentoring may be implemented in a very shallow way. Nothing is more likely to cause the downfall of any activity than the attitude, "Well, if the state says we have to do this, then we'll do it."

Key decision makers in the system must take steps to signal the community, the school district staff, and others that they believe that mentoring is not a peripheral activity, and that they accept the assumption that schools will be improved with more effective leadership, and that mentoring is a way to improve the quality of leadership. Public statements of support should be made, and those in top level administrative positions for the district might give even more visible support to the concept by serving as mentors from time to time.

2. Does the mentoring program fit existing plans and development programs?

The best way to ensure that a mentoring program will continue to serve a purposeful role for a school district is to blend it with other ongoing professional development practices and activities. In this way, it is less probable that "being a mentor" will be perceived as an add-on duty for administrators who are already busy with keeping the schools in business. If a school district has a thoughtful approach to administrator professional development already in place, mentoring can be viewed as an enhancement of this, rather than "just another thing that they tell us we're supposed to do around here."

3. Are people willing to accept a mentoring program?

There is probably no quicker way to kill any good idea with a group of professionals than to try to force something on them if they are not really interested in it. Even with a concept like mentoring which most people accept as a good idea that may be used to help colleagues, there is going to be little chance for successful implementation if people do not openly accept it as something with which they want to be involved.

4. Is there enough time to do the job right?

Proper mentoring takes time for both the mentor and the person being mentored. As a result, school districts must recognize that administrators involved in mentoring relationships will need to be released from other responsibilities from time to time so that they can meet and interact without feeling that time is being "stolen" from their personal lives. Is it always important, for example, that every principal be at every district meeting, or can some times be made available for mentors and protegees to work together?

5. Do we know what we're talking about?

It is critical that everyone share the same set of understandings about mentoring and the responsibilities of mentors and protegees before a school system takes on such a program. Because of the fact that the concept of mentoring has become so popular in recent years, there is a problem in that many different individuals may assume varied understandings about what mentoring is and how it should be carried out. Earlier in this Manual, we discussed some of the basic views that are popular regarding mentoring in schools and other organizations. It is by no means to be viewed as an exhaustive review of the topic. It may be a helpful point of departure to assist you in leading a staff discussion that will result in developing some common, shared understandings, assumptions, and definitions that can guide the development of a program in your school district.

6. How will we get the mentors and protegees together?

The issue of placing mentors and their protegees together is a crucial one that will likely guarantee the ultimate success or failure of a program. We realize that, as a response to the expectation that districts would

develop in-house mentoring programs for all new administrators, it is quite probable that many mentor-protegee relationships will be "automatic," particularly in smaller districts where there may be but only one or two administrators other than the beginner. In such cases, discussion of finding "perfect" matches are not exactly relevant. Nevertheless, we include a discussion of matching issues here because there may be settings, particularly a county-wide bases, where alternative placements of mentors and protegees may be possible. Also, even in smaller districts where mentors have no choice over the selection of protegees, we suggest that there be some consideration of these same concerns.

The first step in the matching process of mentors and potential protegees would necessarily involve some careful analysis of basic styles or other characteristics of both mentors and protegees. We have found that many different activities may serve as the basis for this analysis. We have used the Myers-Briggs Type Inventory (MBTI), various leadership behavioral matrices, and learning style questionnaires, to gain insights into the styles, behavioral types, and other features of mentors and protegees. To date, we have no reason to believe that any of these indicators is necessarily better or worse than others. We recommend that you make use of some sort of device that provides a profile of those involved in the mentor relationship. The purpose is not to diagnose individuals and say that one person is "better" or "more acceptable" as a protegee, or to preclude the matching of individuals with differing styles or types. Rather, we believe that it is crucial for partners to know what differences, if any, are likely to exist in advance. Differences are dysfunctional only in mentoring relationships if they are not recognized and addressed. A human relations

type of mentor can exist and work effectively with a protegee who is autocratic if this is understood as a difference from the start.

Another key feature of developing profitable mentor-protegee relationships involves the review of individual administrative philosophies or platforms. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988) described platforms as public statement of basic values and attitudes regarding fundamental issues related to school leadership. It would be highly desirable as part of the matching process to ask that protegees and potential mentors spend some time in sharing highlights of their basic platforms so that both sides would gain some insights into the most critical concerns of their possible partners.

Protegees need to be interviewed concerning some of their basic orientations toward mentoring in general. Some of the questions that might guide such interviews might include:

-- How much do you currently know about mentoring?

-- How committed are you to mentoring?

-- How receptive will you be to a relationship where you will defer to a mentor's greater knowledge and experience?

-- How much do you expect to be able to benefit from a mentoring relationship, in terms of long-term career development goals?

Clearly, these are not the only questions that might be asked of a beginning administrator who will participate in a mentoring program. However, these will provide you with some idea of whether or not an individual will likely reject mentoring from another colleague. If there is a basic mindset against mentoring, you may have to work toward a change of fundamental attitude before proceeding.

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